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5	Effectiveness of a redesigned water diversion using rock vortex weirs
6	to enhance longitudinal connectivity for small salmonids
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12	Kyle D. Martens
13	and
14	Patrick J. Connolly
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23	U.S. Geological Survey
24	Western Fisheries Research Center
25	Columbia River Research Laboratory
26	5501A Cook-Underwood Road
27	Cook, WA, USA 98605
28	
29	
30	Corresponding author: kmartens@usgs.gov, phone: 509-538-2299 x238
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32	Abstract
33	For nearly 100 years, water diversions have affected fish passage in Beaver Creek, a
34	tributary of the lower Methow River in north-central Washington State. From 2000-
35	2004, four dam-style water diversions were replaced with a series of rock vortex weirs.
36	These were designed to allow fish passage while maintaining the ability to divert water
37	into irrigation canals. We observed the new appearance of three species (juvenile
38	Chinook salmon Oncorhynchus tshawytscha, juvenile coho salmon O. kisutch, and
39	mountain whitefish Prosopium williamsoni) upstream of the rock vortex weirs indicating
40	successful restoration of longitudinal connectivity. We used passive integrated
41	transponder (PIT) tags and instream PIT tag interrogators during 2004-2007 to evaluate
42	upstream passage of small salmonids (< 240 mm FL) through one of these series of rock
43	vortex weirs. We documented 109 upstream passage events by small salmonids through
44	the series of rock vortex weirs, most of which (81%) were rainbow trout/juvenile
45	steelhead $\textit{O. mykiss.}$ Small rainbow trout/steelhead ranging from $86-238$ mm were able
46	to pass upstream through the rock vortex weir, though a delay in fish passage at
47	discharges below 0.32 m ³ s ⁻¹ was detected when compared to a nearby control section.
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49	Introduction
50	The use of water diversions to irrigate crops and raise livestock continues to be a
51	common practice for farmers and ranchers in the western United States. However, some
52	of these diversions can act as barriers that limit the movement, distribution, and
53	abundance of fish within and between watersheds (Bednarek 2001; Connolly and Sauter
54	2008). They can also affect the composition of fish communities (Bednarek 2001) and
55	reduce genetic variability of fish populations (Neville et al. 2006). The most recognized
56	impact of instream fish barriers on fish movement in the Pacific Northwest is the
57	blockage of adult salmonid access to their historical spawning areas. However, even
58	when adults can pass upstream, these structures can severely restrict upstream passage of
59	juvenile salmonids (Curry et al. 1997; Erkinaro et al. 1998). This restriction can limit or
60	block access to critical rearing areas (Scrivener et al. 1993), to refugia from predation
61	(Harvey 1991), and to colonization of fish populations following disturbances

62 (Detenbeck et al. 1992). Habitat fragmentation resulting from blocked passage can 63 increase risk of extirpation of fish populations (Winston et al. 1991). 64 65 Direction and timing of fish movement can be difficult to assess with use of most 66 common tagging methods (Bunt et al. 1999). Ficke and Myrick (2009) noted the limited 67 number of techniques for effectively monitoring small-bodied fish in natural stream 68 conditions. Typical tagging methods, such as Floy tags (Belford and Gould 1989), 69 visible implant elastomer (VIE) tags (Schmetterling et al. 2002; Ficke and Myrick 2009), 70 acrylic paint injection (Warren and Pardew 1998), and radio telemetry (Bunt et al. 1999; 71 Ovidio and Philippart 2002) have serious limitation for determining fish direction and 72 timing. Floy tags, VIE tags, and acrylic injection techniques could not provide 73 information regarding specific travel times through the rock vortex weirs (RVW) unless 74 traps were continuously operated upstream and downstream of the diversion. The use of 75 radio telemetry can provide travel-time data; however, the number and size of fish can be 76 limited due to the size, cost, and lifespan of the tags. Passive integrated transponder 77 (PIT) tags and fixed instream interrogation systems can be used to determine direction 78 and the exact time of fish movement (Connolly et al. 2008), to relate the time of 79 movement to near instantaneous stream flow conditions (Bryant et al. 2009), and to tag 80 large numbers of fish for a relatively low cost. For these reasons, the use of PIT tags has 81 shown a lot of potential for these types of studies. 82 83 Passive integrated transponder tags and instream interrogators have been successfully 84 used to study natural-style passage structures using large (> 250 mm) migratory fish 85 (Aarestrup et al. 2003; Calles and Greenberg 2007), but few studies have looked at small 86 fish that may or may not have migratory tendencies. Fish passage through RVW has 87 received little attention in laboratory and field studies (Ruttenberg 2007). Structures such 88 as RVW are built in a "close-to-natural style" that resembles natural river rapids 89 (FAO/DVWK 2002). These types of structures offer an alternative to more traditional 90 passage structures, and can potentially create a more aesthetic look to the landscape 91 (Jungwirth 1996). Some advantages of these natural-style structures are the variety of 92 flows and depths for movement of different species and sizes of fish, as well as the

habitat they create (Aarestrup et al. 2003). Previous evaluations of these types of structures have revealed mixed results (Aarestrup et al. 2003; Calles and Greenberg 2005, 2007), creating the need for more informative studies (Roni et al. 2002). Before the role of RVW for instream restoration increases, their effectiveness needs to be assessed to justify large expenditures and to prevent replicating flawed designs. The objectives of this study were to: 1) assess the effectiveness of a series of RVW to pass upstream passage of small fish, and 2) assess role of stream discharge and fish length on speed and timing of fish moving through the series of RVW.

102 Study Area

Our study was conducted in Beaver Creek, a tributary of the lower Methow River in northcentral Washington State, USA (Figure 2). The Methow River is a fifth order stream that drains into the Columbia River at river kilometer (rkm) 843. Beaver Creek is a third order stream that drains westward into the Methow River at rkm 57 just south of Twisp, WA. The watershed area is 179 km² (USFS 2004) and ranges in elevation from 463 to 1,890 m. Discharge in Beaver Creek was typically highest in May and June, and then declined to base levels during August - October. During July 2004 and September 2007, the lowest daily median discharge was 0.05 m³s¹ in September 2005, and the highest daily median discharge was 4.70 m³s¹ in May 2006 (Ruttenberg 2007).

Prior to restoration, various artificial and natural barriers existed in the Beaver Creek watershed for more than 100 years. One of these barriers was a small concrete dam, while the other diversion barriers were structures made from a mixture of materials such as wood, rocks, and plastic sheeting. The concrete diversion dam was modified in 2004, whereas three other upstream diversion dams were modified in 2003. At least two of these diversions were considered barriers to upstream fish passage before installation of the RVW (USBOR 2004a, 2005). The RVW in Beaver Creek were designed and installed under the supervision of U.S. Bureau of Reclamation to meet fish passage standards established by the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS 2000) and Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW 2000).

124 Modifications to the water diversions in Beaver Creek included installing a series of 125 RVW at a given site (USBOR 2004a, 2004b, 2004c, 2005). These RVW were made of 126 large boulders to increase the stream elevation so that it matched the height of the 127 original diversion. A typical RVW was pointed upstream with the "legs" angling 128 downstream from 15 to 30 degrees relative to the stream bank (Figure 1). Footer stones 129 were installed along rock layers and weir stones were positioned above them. Rock 130 vortex weirs were designed in hopes to allow passage of water and biota around and 131 between the rocks at normal flows, creating a variety of flow velocities and depths to accommodate fish passage (SMRC 2008). The RVW typically created scour pools 132 133 downstream of the weirs, which had the potential to provide rearing habitat and a jump 134 pool for fish. While RVW are not new (Roni et al 2002), their effectiveness for allowing 135 upstream passage of small fish was largely unknown and is likely to vary among sites. 136 137 Before the construction of the Lower Stokes water diversion (LSW), rainbow 138 trout/steelhead Oncorhynchus mykiss, eastern brook trout Salvelinus fontinalis, and 139 shorthead sculpin *Cottus confusus* could be found just upstream of the LSW. 140 Downstream of the LSW, anadromous salmonids (primarily steelhead, but also Chinook 141 salmon O. tshawytscha and coho salmon O. kisutch), non-anadromous salmonids 142 (rainbow trout, westslope cutthroat trout O. clarki, bull trout S. confluentus, mountain 143 whitefish Prosopium williamsoni and eastern brook trout), and non-salmonids (shorthead 144 sculpin, longnosed dace Rhinichthys cataractae, bridgelip sucker Catastomus 145 columbianus, and smallmouth bass Micropterus dolomieu) were present (Martens and 146 Connolly 2008). 147 148 Methods 149 Fish were collected using a two-way fish trap at rkm 1 (Figure 2) and backpack 150 electrofishers. In order to track movements, most fish 65 mm or longer were tagged with 151 a 12.5 mm PIT tag (full duplex, 134.2 kHz). Electrofishing was conducted at the lower 152 sampling area (rkm 1), upstream and downstream of the LSW, and in the upper 153 watershed. We intensively sampled a 600 m section of stream immediately upstream of 154 the LSW multiple times in each year of the study (2004-2007) to PIT tag fish, recapture

155 previously PIT-tagged fish, and look for the presence of new species above the LSW. 156 Surveys were conducted in the spring, summer, and fall. 157 158 A fish trap was deployed at rkm 1, and was used to collect and tag upstream moving fish 159 below the RSW. The two-way fish trap was operated from 22 October through 22 160 December (60 d) in 2004, from 20 March through 5 December (253 d) in 2005, from 13 161 February through 27 April and 28 June through 27 November (220 d) in 2006, and from 162 24 February through 30 March and 25 May through 30 September (219 d) in 2007. The 163 trap was checked a minimum of once a day. Trap operations were typically 164 compromised by high flows during the fall and early spring. The trap was pulled in 165 winters due to ice accumulations. Fish trapping operations started in late fall 2004 and 166 ran into fall 2007. 167 168 We maintained and operated one multi-antenna and multiplexing PIT tag interrogation 169 system and one single-antenna PIT tag interrogation system (Figure 2). The multi-170 antenna PIT tag interrogation system or upper interrogator (UI) was deployed 30 m 171 upstream of the LSW. The UI consisted of a FS 1001M Digital Angel multiplexing PIT 172 tag transceiver, six custom-made antennas, and a DC power source. The six antennas 173 were arranged longitudinally in three arrays, with two antennas per array, which allowed 174 us to determine direction of fish movement, to enhance efficiency of detection, and to 175 insure coverage of the entire wetted width of the stream during the majority of summer 176 flow levels. At the upstream most array (array A), we installed a 1.8-m x 0.9-m antenna 177 (number 1) on river left and a 3.1-m x 0.9-m antenna (number 2) on river right. At the 178 middle array (array B) we installed two 3.1-m x 0.9-m antennas (numbers 3 and 4), and 179 for the downstream array (array C), we installed two 1.8-m x 0.9-m antennas (numbers 5 180 and 6). Arrays A and C were installed in a pass-by configuration, while array B was 181 installed in a hybrid configuration, as described by Connolly et at. (2008). Array A was 182 8.2 m upstream from array B, and array B was 14.6 m upstream from array C. The total 183 distance from array A and array C was 22.8 m. This interrogator had detection 184 efficiencies exceeding 96% during high flow periods and approached 100% during low 185 flow periods (Connolly et al. 2008). Downstream from the UI, a single-antenna PIT tag

186 interrogator (LI) was installed just downstream of the LSW at rkm 4 in Beaver Creek 187 during fall 2005 (Figure 2). The single-antenna, PIT tag interrogation system consisted 188 of a 2001F-ISO Digital Angel PIT tag transceiver, a 12-volt battery, and a small (1.2 m x 189 0.6 m) antenna. 190 191 To assess discharge, a minitroll pressure transducer (In Situ Corporation, Fort Collins, 192 Colorado) was deployed 5 m upstream of the LSW. The pressure transducer recorded 193 water depths at 20-minute intervals. These readings along with instream flow 194 calculations were used to develop a rating curve to estimate stream discharge at the 195 diversion weirs (Ruttenberg 2007). Water depths were collected from July 2004 through 196 May 2006 (when high flows washed out the pressure transducer) by the University of 197 Idaho. The U. S. Geological Survey (USGS) reinstalled the pressure transducer in March 198 2007 and recorded stream levels through December 2007. 199 200 Upstream movement for LSW was determined by fish detected at the UI, but for our 201 analysis, we limited the data to fish detected at both the LI and UI. The timing of 202 upstream passage was matched with the discharge readings taken just upstream of the 203 LSW. Due to limited presence and PIT tagging of other species of fish in Beaver Creek, 204 we focused our length and movement analysis on O. mykiss. 205 206 Because O. mykiss were not physically recaptured upstream of the LSW, individual fish 207 lengths at time of passing were not available. To evaluate the size of fish passing the 208 LSW, we adjusted the length of fish based on the fish's length at tagging and growth of 209 recaptured fish. We used PIT tag recapture data collected during three common sampling 210 periods (spring, summer, and fall) from two locations (from fish trap or electrofishing 211 near rkm 1; electrofishing near the LSW between rkm 3 to 5). The number of days from 212 tagging until a fish passage event was then separated into growth periods (March-May, 213 June-August, and September-February). If a fish was detected to be in both Lower 214 Stokes and fish trap areas, we used the average daily growth for each area and each 215 growth period to adjust fork length at time of passage. If a fish was tagged and thought 216 to remain in the Lower Stokes area, we used the average daily growth for the Lower

217 Stokes area to adjust fork length. Finally, we multiplied the number of days in each 218 growth period by the appropriate average daily growth rate and added the total growth to 219 the original fork length. We refer to this new length as "adjusted fork length" (AFL). 220 221 We compared O. mykiss moving from the LI to the UI (treatment section) to O. mykiss 222 moving from one array to another (Array C-B, B-A or C-A) of the UI (control sections). 223 If a fish was detected at each array, we only used the distance from array C to array A. 224 We evaluated the distribution of passage time of O. mykiss for normality and found it to 225 be positively skewed; therefore, we log-transformed the data. To account for differences 226 in length between the treatment and control sections (distance of the treatment section 227 was 141 m, distance between Array C to B was 14.6 m, between Array B to A was 8.2 m, 228 and between Array C to A was 22.8 m), we used the ratio of distance over time. We 229 separated our fish passage data for treatment and control sections into four categories 230 (low discharge and slow-moving fish, high discharge and slow-moving fish, low 231 discharge and fast-moving fish, and high discharge and fast-moving fish). Discharge was 232 separated into high and low categories on the first occasion that the discharge level doubled from the previous discharge rate (0.31 to 0.64 m³s⁻¹) of fish passing the RVW. 233 234 Fast and slow moving fish were separated based on one standard deviation over the mean 235 (mean + SD = 2.2 m/min) of fish passing through the RVW. The treatment and control 236 data sets were then used to run a Chi-square analysis to compare movement rates between two discharge rates (low discharge $0.15 - 0.31 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$, high discharge $0.64 - 2.93 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$). 237 238 Finally, we ran a linear regression to evaluate whether passage time was size dependant. 239 240 **Results** 241 242 We PIT tagged a total of 6,596 juvenile steelhead/resident rainbow trout, Chinook 243 salmon, coho salmon, bull trout, brook trout, mountain whitefish, and bridgelip sucker. 244 Of these, 5,172 were small (< 240 mm) O. mykiss with 3,699 captured, tagged, and 245 released downstream the RVW and LI. Following the modification of the downstream-246 most water diversion (Fort Thurlow), new species collected by electrofishing or detected

upstream of the LSW, included juvenile Chinook salmon (n = 24), juvenile coho salmon

248 (n = 2), and mountain whitefish (n = 1). Five small O. mykiss and one brook trout that 249 were tagged and released below the LSW were recaptured through electrofishing just 250 upstream of the UI. From 2005 through 2007, we recorded 109 upstream fish passage 251 events of small salmonids at the UI, including: 88 O. mykiss, 20 brook trout, and 1 coho 252 salmon. The smallest documented upstream mover (a 77 mm O. mykiss when tagged at 253 the fish trap) was detected upstream of the RVW at the UI less than two months after it 254 was tagged. 255 256 A total of 60 of the 88 upstream passage events of O. mykiss were detected at the LI and 257 subsequently detected at the UI. These O. mykiss movements through the LSW ranged 258 from 28 min to 85 d. Most of these fish moved through the LSW in the spring and 259 summer, with little to no movement occurring during the fall and winter months (Figure 3). Small O. mykiss ranging from 86-238 mm (AFL) were detected moving through the 260 261 LSW (LI to UI) within one hour of first detection at the LI, at discharges as low as 0.15 262 m³s⁻¹. Since deployment of the LI in fall 2005, we did not record discharge under 0.15 m³s⁻¹. Corresponding flow records were available for 46 of the 60 O. mykiss that were 263 264 detected at both LI and UI. These 46 passage events with flow records were used in our 265 comparison of treatment and control sections. 266 267 From October 2005 to September 2007, the LI detected 107 small O. mykiss, 98 of which 268 had been tagged near this interrogator (within 20 meters). We detected 13 small O. 269 mykiss at the UI that were originally tagged at fish trap (rkm 1), which constituted a 270 movement upstream > 3 km. Of these 13 O. mykiss that moved, 9 (70%) were previously 271 detected at the LI. These nine fish detected at the LI that were subsequently detected at 272 the UI range in size (77-208 mm FL) and took 28 min to 85 days to pass through the 273 LSW. 274 275 There were more slow-moving fish at both high and low discharge moving over the 276 treatment section compared to the control section (Figure 4). Fish passing the treatment section moved slower ($X^2 = 3.9781$, P = 0.046) when moving at low discharge versus high 277 discharge, but no such difference ($X^2 = 0.023$, P = 0.880) was found for fish moving 278

279 through the control section. There was no evidence for size-dependence in movement rate through the LSW at either low discharge ($r^2 = 0.049$, P = 0.564) or high discharge (r^2 280 281 = 0.003, P = 0.774). 282 283 Discussion 284 After modification of the LSW, we found three additional species of fish above it: 285 juvenile Chinook salmon, juvenile coho salmon, and mountain whitefish. While the 286 number of fish we observed from formerly excluded species were relatively low (< 30), 287 their numbers are likely to increase in the future. Access to new rearing area for these 288 juvenile salmonids will hopefully lead to a sustained process of colonization. Anderson 289 et al. (2008) speculated that juvenile salmonids using nonnatal streams may increase 290 colonization if they return as adults to their rearing sites rather than their emergent sites. 291 In addition, enhanced tributary access may provide additional benefits to juvenile 292 salmonids compared to rearing confined to the mainstem river. Murray and Rosenau 293 (1989) observed that juvenile Chinook that moved into nonnatal tributaries experienced 294 increased growth compared to fish rearing in a mainstem river, while Ebersole at al. 295 (2006) reported that juvenile coho had improved growth and survival over winter in 296 tributaries compared to those in a mainstem river. 297 298 We successfully monitored over 100 small fish moving upstream and past a series of 299 RVW at our LSW site. Small O. mykiss ranging from 86-238 mm (AFL) were able to 300 move through the LSW within 1 hr, but some took much longer (up to 98 days). The 301 increase in the number of species and the recorded movements of small O. mykiss 302 through the LSW indicated the RVW was effective at passing small fish upstream. 303 However, the modification appeared just as effective in allowing small-sized fish of an 304 introduced salmonid species, brook trout, to pass upstream. 305 306 Small fish were able to move through the RVW at low discharges, as documented by a O. 307 mykiss as small as 77 mm passing the LSW when discharges were at their lowest 308 recorded level. Fish passing upstream through a treatment section at low discharge took 309 a longer time compared to those passing upstream through a control section. These

310 stream sections did differ in character. The control was more representative of a low 311 gradient pool-riffle complex while the treatment section was more representative of a 312 high gradient pool-riffle complex. Ovidio and Philippart (2002) found that areas 313 downstream of blockages provided good habitat for several species of fish, and Jungwirth 314 (1996) observed that fish in pools created by natural-style passage structures were found 315 in the same pool for months after initial sampling. The range in travel time (28 min to 316 over 98 d) through the LSW may be due to pools created downstream of each RVW 317 providing good habitat for the fish and providing less motivation for instream movement. 318 319 We could not identify the number of fish that may have unsuccessfully attempted to pass 320 upstream and over the LSW. However, all nine O. mykiss (77-208 mm FL) that 321 expressed definitive upstream movement (fish that moved > 3 km) from the fish trap to 322 LI were also detected upstream of the LSW at UI. In addition, there were no indications 323 that fish were unsuccessful in their attempts to pass upstream and over the LSW (i.e., fish 324 moving upstream from the fish trap and detected at LI, but not detected at the UI). 325 Because the proportion of fish detected moving upstream was reasonably high (70%) at 326 the LI, we would expect that if fish were unsuccessful in their attempts to pass the 327 RVWs, there would have been some individuals detected at the LI moving back 328 downstream. We did not observe any fish move back downstream. None the less, our 329 design was likely better at recording success rather than failure of passage through the 330 series of RVW. 331 332 It is difficult to decipher failure because small O. mykiss in our study could not be 333 assumed to have a definitive motivation to move upstream, unlike upstream movement of 334 adult steelhead near spawning time or downstream movement of steelhead smolts. 335 Cargill (1980) reported that wild rainbow trout in small streams had no significant 336 upstream or downstream movement after 2.5 years. Furthermore, Helfrich and Kendall 337 (1982) found that hatchery released rainbow trout in a mountain stream showed mostly 338 local movements within 1 km of their stocking locations and that most of the fish moved 339 downstream. While Leider et al. (1986) provided some evidence of upstream movement 340 of presmolt steelhead up to 2 km, most parr emigrated downstream. McMichael and

Pearsons (2001) observed residual hatchery steelhead moved over 12 km upstream. The relatively low number of *O. mykiss* tagged at the fish trap (> 3 km downstream) that were detected (13) and recaptured (5) at or above the RVW indicate that small *O. mykiss* lacked motivation to move large distances upstream in Beaver Creek.

Water use in eastern Oregon and Washington has increased due to large areas of land made more useful for agriculture through irrigation (Wissmar et al. 1994). Farmers and ranchers have come to rely on this water to grow crops and raise cattle. Unfortunately, increase in irrigation using water diversions has often been at the expense of threatened and endangered aquatic species. Habitat enhancement measures such as RVW have been widely implemented to reduce human impacts, but the effectiveness of RVW for fish had not been well documented (Roni et al. 2002) due to lack of funding and appropriate methodologies to conduct definitive studies. Our work demonstrates an effective method for testing these enhancement measures and showed that RVW were effective at passing small fish upstream. Modification of a century old barrier helped to restore longitudinal connectivity of depressed populations of salmonids, but also for brook trout, an introduced species.

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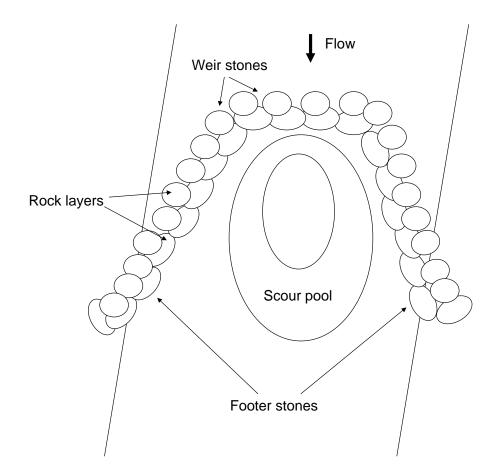
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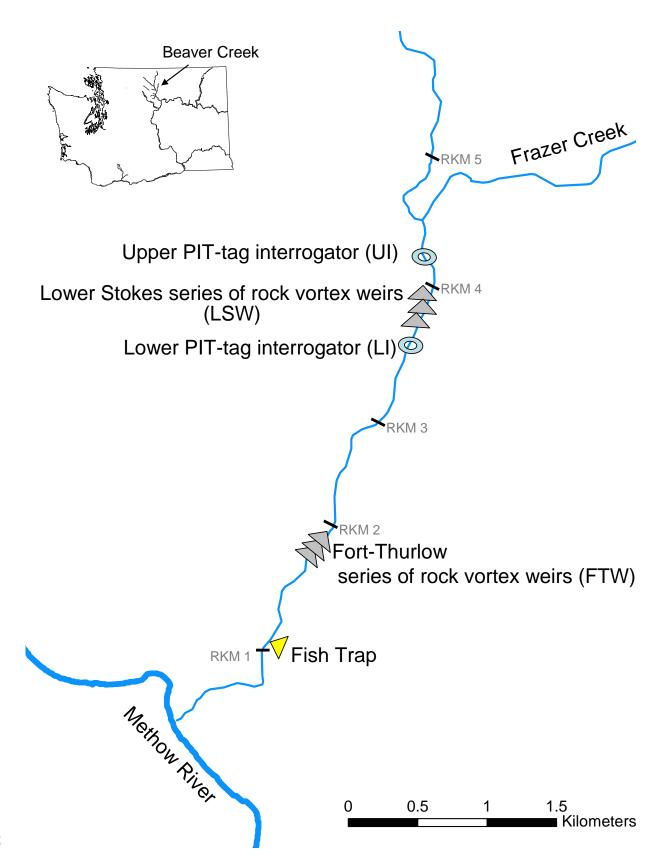
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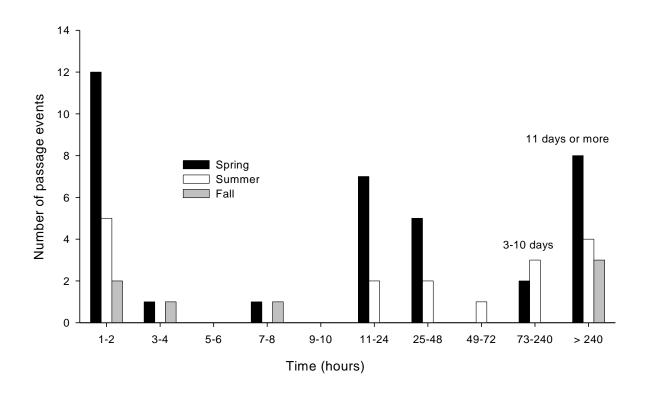
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504 505	List of Figures
506	
507	Figure 1. Design of a typical rock vortex weir.
508	
509	Figure 2. Sites for locations of PIT tag interrogators, fish trap, and series of rock vortex
510	weirs in Beaver Creek. The upper interrogator (UI) was a multiplexing system with six
511	antennas, while the lower interrogator (LI) was a single antenna system.
512	
513	Figure 3. The amount of time for juvenile O. mykiss (86-238 mm adjusted fork length) to
514	move upstream through the Lower Stokes series of rock vortex weirs. No fish were
515	observed to move through the rock vortex weir in the winter.
516	
517	Figure 4. Upstream fish passage events for fast- and slow- moving juvenile O. mykiss at
518	low and high flows over a set of PIT tag antennas (A) and a rock vortex weir (B).
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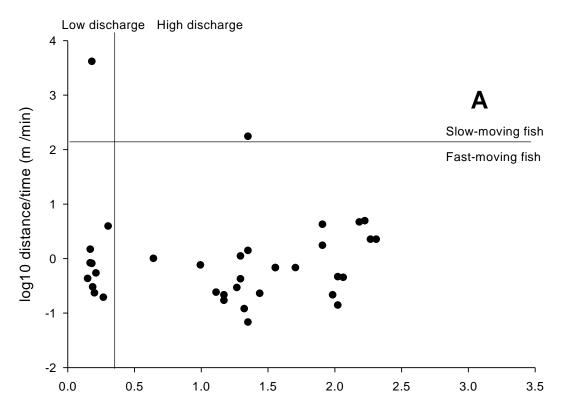




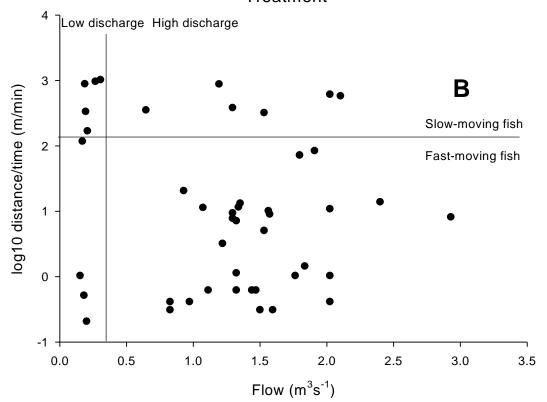




Control



Treatment



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Page 23